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Article

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1 **Article**

2 **Local changes in snow depth dominate the evolving pattern**
3 **of elevation-dependent warming on the Tibetan Plateau**

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 **Elevation-dependent warming (EDW), whereby warming rates are stratified by**
27 **elevation, may increase the threat to the life-supporting solid water reservoir on**
28 **the Tibetan Plateau. Previous studies have debated whether EDW exists and how**
29 **it is driven. Using temperatures at 133 weather stations on the Tibetan Plateau**
30 **during 17 different periods generated using a 30-year sliding window over 1973–**
31 **2018, this study finds that the existence of EDW varies as the period moves**
32 **forward, and critically it has become more severe over time. During the early**
33 **part of the record with weaker regional warming, there were limited changes in**
34 **snow depth and no EDW, but as time advances and regional warming intensifies,**
35 **snow depth declines significantly at higher elevations, causing development of**
36 **EDW. We conclude that enhanced regional warming has caused decreases in**
37 **snow depth, largely controlling the pattern of EDW on the Tibetan Plateau. This**
38 **may explain contrasting conclusions on EDW from previous studies which have**
39 **used data for different periods, and our findings support enhanced EDW and**
40 **more severe depletion of the Tibetan Plateau solid water reserves in a warmer**
41 **future.**

42 **Key words: elevation-dependent warming; Tibetan Plateau; climate warming;**
43 **snow depth**

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47 1. Introduction

48 The Tibetan Plateau (TP), known as the Earth's Third Pole, is home to the Earth's
49 largest reservoir of solid water outside the polar regions, currently including 10^5 km²
50 of glacial extent [1] and 41.9×10^9 m³ a⁻¹ water equivalent of snow [2]. This provides
51 life-supporting water to almost 20% of the world's population [3]. However, most of
52 the reservoir is located at higher elevations, typically above 4000 m on the TP.
53 Increasing evidence suggests that higher elevations may be particularly sensitive to
54 global climate change [4] and strong changes would threaten the solid water reservoir
55 and affect the sustainable water supply downstream [3, 5].

56 Elevation-dependent warming (EDW), whereby warming rates are stratified by
57 elevation, could mean more rapid change at the critical elevation holding the majority
58 of the solid water reservoir, which in turn would accelerate the rate of ablation of the
59 solid water reserve. EDW on the Tibetan Plateau and its explanatory mechanisms
60 have been intensively studied [4, 6–8]. Early studies used station observations to
61 reveal significant warming on the TP from 1960 to 1990 and find larger warming
62 rates at higher elevations [9]. Subsequently, reanalyses, satellite data and model

63 simulation were employed to elucidate TP EDW and its mechanisms [4]. As satellite
64 records lengthen, remotely sensed data have become more commonly used to examine
65 plateau-wide EDW at high spatial resolution [10, 11]. In addition to investigation of
66 past EDW, future projections can be examined based on regional climate model
67 simulations [12].

68 Despite extensive study, results from previous studies remain divergent about the
69 existence of Tibetan Plateau EDW [4,6,7]. For example, although clear enhancement
70 of warming with elevation has been observed and simulated from 1960 to 1990 on the
71 TP [9, 13], no EDW was found in another study for 1961–2005 in terms of
72 observations and reanalysis [14]. Recent studies show that warming rates are strongest
73 for the plateau as a whole around 4500–5000 m but weaken again at ultra-high
74 elevations above this [10–12, 15]. Different profiles of warming have also been
75 measured in different mountain ranges on the plateau, based on adjusted MODIS data
76 [16]. In addition to the conflicting observed elevational profiles, the dominant
77 driving factors determining the existence or absence of EDW have also proved elusive
78 [4, 17, 18]. Understanding how the elevation pattern of warming has evolved may
79 help in understanding the driving mechanisms.

80 Therefore, for the first time, this study tries to understand how EDW may be
81 driven through examining its temporal evolution. Using 133 weather stations across
82 the TP, we examine the elevation profile of warming for different periods using a
83 30-year sliding window between 1973 and 2018.

84 2. Materials and Methods

85 Daily observations of mean 2 m air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), total precipitation (mm), snow
86 depth (cm), relative humidity (%), and monthly means of total cloud amount (tenths),
87 and sunshine duration (hours) were obtained from the National Meteorological
88 Information Center, China Meteorological Administration. Daily snowfall is
89 calculated as precipitation which falls when mean daily 2 m air temperature $\leq 0^{\circ}\text{C}$
90 [19]. Snow cover duration is calculated as the total number of days with snow
91 depth >0 cm. The threshold of 0 cm is used to include days with thin snow cover.
92 Original data covered the whole period from 1951 to 2018, but only a few stations
93 have continuous data during the earlier 20–30 years. Thus, we chose 133 stations with
94 elevation >2 km (from over 2400 possible candidates in China) with continuous data
95 for 1973–2018 (Table S1). 2 m air temperatures at a further 420 low-elevation
96 weather stations (0–2 km) within $74\text{--}108^{\circ}\text{E}$, $22\text{--}43^{\circ}\text{N}$ are also used to represent
97 adjacent lowland warming (Fig. 1).

98 Observations were previously corrected using a test of spatial consistency [20]
99 and data homogeneity has been assessed using the penalized maximal t test [21], F
100 test [22] and the standard normal homogeneity test [23]. The amount of missing data
101 is very small ($<0.01\%$). For snow depth, missing records were estimated using daily
102 precipitation and 2 m air temperature. If daily air temperature was below 0°C , daily
103 precipitation was directly used to convert to daily snow depth, and in the range 0--
104 2°C , half of daily precipitation was converted to increase the daily snow depth [24].
105 For other variables, when there were less than 3 consecutive missing values, linear

106 interpolation was used based on the two nearest known values. When more than 3
107 consecutive values were missing, linear interpolation was based on known values
108 (same day/month as missing value) averaged over the two nearest years. Linear trends
109 of temperature, snow depth, and cloud amount were calculated using the slope of the
110 ordinary least-squares regression line, and statistical significance evaluated using the
111 Student's t test method.

112 **3. Results**

113 **3.1 Relationships between EDW, mean plateau-wide warming and elevation** 114 **gradient of snow depth trend**

115 Fig. 1 plots the changing regional warming trend averaged for the 133 stations above
116 2 km on the Tibetan Plateau compared with that for 420 other stations below 2 km
117 adjacent to the plateau. In both cases a sliding 30-year window is used. Clearly the
118 rate of warming is accelerating in both cases, and the two curves are largely
119 synchronous, meaning that the accelerated warming at high elevations is in part a
120 response to regional atmospheric forcing which is also accelerating warming
121 elsewhere. However, the warming in the plateau is consistently larger. Moreover, the
122 mean plateau-wide warming trend reproduced in Fig. 2 (red hollow circles: left y axis)
123 is strongly correlated with the elevation-dependent warming trend (defined as R : right
124 y axis) over the period of the record. R is defined as the correlation between
125 temperature trend magnitude and elevation for stations within the plateau (i.e., over
126 the range 2–5 km). We call R for temperature (green solid circles) the internal EDW

127 signal, but R can also be calculated for trends in snow depth (blue solid circles). For
128 most of the record the EDW signal for temperature is positive, although in the two
129 early windows this is not the case. Over time, as plateau warming has increased, the
130 EDW signal within the plateau has also increased, and there is a strong correlation
131 ($r=+0.88$, $P<0.001$) between the two. The elevation-dependent snow depth trend on
132 the other hand has decreased (i.e., greater decrease in snow depth at higher elevations)
133 over the same time frame and is strongly negatively correlated with the EDW
134 temperature signal ($r=-0.96$, $P<0.001$). Because snow depth is decreasing (in contrast
135 to temperature which is increasing), a negative R in snow trends (enhanced snow loss
136 at higher elevations) is expected.

137 In the early part of the record, there was insignificant or even weak EDW with
138 the strongest warming and strongest snow depth declines both at lower elevations, but
139 as time has progressed, both the strongest warming and strongest snow loss have
140 migrated to higher elevations—and they are strongly correlated with each other.

141 We also examined elevation-dependent relative humidity, sunshine duration, and
142 total cloud cover trends (Fig. S1 online). In most cases the correlations with EDW are
143 weak ($P<0.1$). Our analysis therefore implies that snow depth change is a dominant
144 driver of the TP EDW signal.

145 Since snow on the TP is largely absent for half of the year (Fig. S2 online), a
146 seasonal analysis was performed (Fig. S3 online). Unsurprisingly the relationship
147 between EDW, regional mean warming trend on the entire TP, and

148 elevation-dependent snow depth trend is strong in the extended winter (October to
149 May) , but absent (even reversed) in the summer (June to September).

150 **3.2 Impact of snow depth change on EDW**

151 To further examine the impact of snow depth change on EDW, we analyze elevational
152 profiles of snow depth and warming trends during three periods when the correlation
153 between snow depth trend and elevation is most positive (1973–2002), closest to zero
154 (1976–2005), and most negative (1989–2018) (Fig. 3). During the first period (1973–
155 2002), snow showed little change at most elevations, but actually increased above 4
156 km. At the same time warming was much reduced at the highest elevations. By 1976–
157 2005 both the snow depth trends and temperature trends show almost no gradient with
158 elevation. It is only during the latter period (1989–2018) that snow depth shows the
159 strongest declines at high elevations, coupled with a strong EDW signal.

160 To more clearly illustrate the relation between the two profiles of warming and
161 snow depth trends, we calculate the differences in temperature and snow trends
162 between the two periods with opposing elevation gradients in snow-change
163 (increasing/decreasing with elevation) (i.e., 1989–2018 minus 1973–2002) (Fig. 4).
164 Significant negative correlations exist between elevational profiles of warming and
165 snow depth trends, suggesting that changes in snow depth are a major influence on
166 changing EDW patterns over time. Decreasing/increasing snow will reflect less/more
167 incoming solar radiation, thus encouraging raising/depression of air temperature
168 through the albedo effect [17].

169 Taking the above analyses together suggests that during the earlier periods
170 regional warming was relatively weak and did not result in significant changes in
171 snow and EDW. As regional warming has intensified and become statistically
172 significant, snow depth has decreased due to both decreasing snowfall and increased
173 melt (Fig. S4 online). Because the decrease has recently become concentrated at
174 higher elevations, this has been a strong influential factor generating EDW in the most
175 recent period.

176 **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

177 This study reveals that temporal variation in EDW on the TP is significantly
178 correlated with the amplitude of regional mean climate warming. However, it is
179 difficult to conclude that intensified regional climate warming “causes” the EDW or
180 vice versa. We have defined EDW as internal to the TP (i.e., between 2–5 km). One
181 may argue that it is the EDW which has caused the enhanced regional warming on the
182 plateau. However, the fact that the warming on the plateau is in tandem with broader
183 scale warming over the rest of China (Fig. 1) shows that this is unlikely to be the case.
184 It is far more likely that the regional warming is controlled in part by large scale
185 response of the climate system over continental Asia, and that additional EDW has
186 been instilled through local feedback processes which have subsequently resulted
187 (Fig. S5 online).

188 Regional warming, especially its amplitude, is not immune from local forcing
189 and feedback processes [25]. Radiative forcing by dust and black carbon aerosols

190 from adjacent deserts and local emissions respectively are known to heat the
191 atmosphere over the TP [26], producing excess heat and moisture via the
192 elevated-heat-pump effect [27]. A warmer, moister free atmosphere will also reduce
193 sensible and latent heat exchange from surface to atmosphere and enhance warming
194 of the land surface. Deposition of dust and black carbon will also substantially
195 decrease snow albedo and accelerate snow melt [28]. Regional warming enhanced by
196 these local processes will therefore encourage snow melt and associated EDW. EDW,
197 in turn, accelerates regional warming, causing a positive feedback loop (Fig. S5
198 online).

199 This study further reveals that changes in snow depth are a strong control of the
200 variability of EDW during different periods, suggesting that snow albedo is a
201 dominant factor determining the existence of EDW. Changes in snow cover duration
202 (as well as depth) could also correlate with EDW variability because only a relatively
203 thin cover of snow is required to significantly change surface albedo [29]. Further
204 analysis demonstrates this, by showing that the elevation-dependent snow cover
205 duration trend is strongly correlated both with the elevation-dependent snow depth
206 trend ($r=+0.93$, $P<0.001$) and the warming trend ($r=-0.87$, $P<0.001$) during different
207 periods (Fig. S6 online). Other meteorological factors, such as cloud-radiation, water
208 vapor, wind speed, and sunshine do not show such strong relationships with the
209 existence of EDW. It is the case however that the elevation gradient of relative
210 humidity trends shows a statistically significant correlation with EDW during 1989–
211 2018 ($R=+0.67$, $P<0.01$) (Fig. S7 online). This is consistent with the previous findings

212 from Rangwala et al. [30] who have shown that increased humidity has a
213 disproportionate effect on warming at high elevations because the relationship
214 between specific humidity and downwelling longwave radiation is non-linear.

215 Although this study uses most weather stations that have continuous records on
216 the TP, the results do not represent the western TP well due to an uneven distribution
217 of stations. Intensive field survey and more observations are required in the western
218 TP to examine EDW there in future. Owing to high resolution and regional coverage,
219 remotely sensed platforms have much potential to examine EDW on the TP [31].
220 MODIS now has around 20 years of land surface temperature (LST) data and has
221 been demonstrated to be potentially reliable [11, 16]. More studies need to calibrate
222 such remotely sensed data sources against in situ observations so that the former can
223 offer opportunity to quantify EDW in the western TP.

224 In conclusion, this study reveals that the amplitude of regional climate warming
225 determines the existence of EDW on the TP. Changes in snow depth, usually
226 concentrated at higher elevations, act as a bridge to connect regional climate warming
227 and the existence of intra-plateau EDW. Our findings help to explain why there is
228 divergence in previous studies about the existence of EDW and its associated
229 mechanisms. It also has critical implications for the Tibetan Plateau solid water
230 reserves, implying quicker ablation in a warmer world.

231 **Conflict of interest**

232 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

233 **Acknowledgment**

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235 and Research (STEP) Program (2019QZKK0102), the National Natural Science
236 Foundation of China (42075091, 41775076), and Youth Innovation Promotion
237 Association of Chinese Academy of Sciences (2018103).

238

239 **Author Contributions**

240 Donglin Guo developed the original idea. Donglin Guo, Kun Yang, Nick Pepin
241 designed the study. Duo Li led the data compilation and Donglin Guo performed
242 statistical analyses. Donglin Guo and Nick Pepin led the preparation of the manuscript
243 with contribution from all the authors. All authors discussed the results and reviewed
244 the manuscript.

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332 Figure captions:

333 **Figure 1.** Evolution over time of mean warming on the TP and surrounding lowlands.

334 (a) Location of the selected weather stations with different elevations

335 (common color bar showing elevation). (b) Comparison between mean

336 warming trends for different groups of stations; all stations ($n=553$), stations

337 on TP (elevation > 2 km: $n=133$), and surrounding lowland stations

338 (elevation ≤ 2 km: $n=420$). The correlation coefficient (r) between mean

339 warming trends for stations on the TP and surrounding lowland stations is

340 given in the top left corner of (b).

341 **Figure 2.** Relationship of the entire Plateau-mean warming trend (red hollow circles,
342 left y axis) with elevation-dependent warming trends (R , right y axis, green
343 solid circles) and elevation-dependent snow depth trends (R , right y axis,
344 blue solid circles) for different periods across selected 133 weather stations
345 with elevation > 2 km. R is defined as the correlation between
346 warming/snow depth trend magnitudes and elevation for stations within the
347 plateau (i.e., over the range 2–5 km). Correlation coefficients (r) of
348 elevation-dependent warming trends (green solid circles) with the entire
349 Plateau-mean warming trend (red hollow circles) and elevation-dependent
350 snow depth trends (blue solid circles) are given. The two dashed horizontal
351 black lines represent the critical R value (± 0.17 , right y axis) at statistical
352 significance $P < 0.05$. The labels “{1}”, “{2}”, “{3}” denote the three
353 periods that have the most positive (1973–2002), closest to zero (1976–
354 2005), and the most negative (1989–2018) R between snow depth trend and
355 elevation.

356 **Figure 3.** Elevational profiles of snow depth trends and air temperature trends for the
357 three periods when the correlation coefficient between snow depth trend and
358 elevation is most positive (1973–2002) (left), closest to zero (1976–2005)
359 (middle), and most negative (1989–2018) (right), also indicated by labels
360 “{1}”, “{2}”, “{3}” in Fig. 2.

361 **Figure 4.** Elevational profiles of the difference in snow depth and air temperature
362 trends between 1989–2018 and 1973–2002. The black dashed lines
363 represent the regression line matched by a regression equation. The
364 correlation coefficient (r) between snow depth and air temperature trends is

365 given in the middle of the figure. The numbers on the top of the figure are
366 the number of weather stations in the corresponding elevation bin.



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371 interaction, with a focus on land surface process simulation, frozen ground simulation and
372 climate change.

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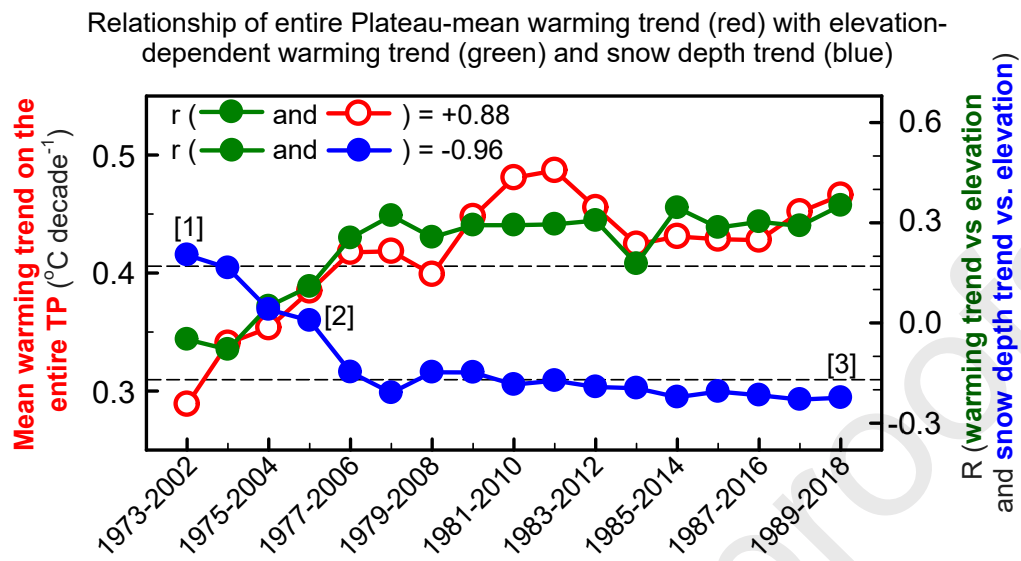
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382 **Graphic abstract:**

383 Climate change is having disproportionate impacts on the Tibetan plateau. Elevation-dependent-
384 warming (EDW), faster warming in high mountains, poses an enhanced threat to life-supporting
385 snow/ice reserves above 5000 m. Past studies debate how EDW is caused, and cannot predict how
386 it will change in future. This study, for the first time, shows that the amplitude of regional
387 warming determines the pattern of EDW, and that changing elevation gradients in snow depth
388 over time have been responsible. Snow loss at increasingly higher elevations moves the zone of
389 enhanced impact uphill, probably continuing in future. Our results explain the divergence in
390 previous studies about causes of EDW, and also have critical implications for longer-term

391 sustainability of water resources on the Tibetan Plateau.

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